

DIETARY INFLUENCES ON ADIPOSE TISSUE
COMPOSITION IN THE MIGRAORY
INDIGO BUNTING (Passerina cyanea)

By
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To my wife, Monica, who waited
patiently and hopefully, for a long time,
this dissertation is dedicated

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**BEST STUDY PRESENTED IN THE FIELD OF ANIMAL
BY THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO STUDENTS ON THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR A LOW-CALORIE DIET IN THE HOUSE SPARROW**

**BIOLOGICAL CHANGES IN HOUSE SPARROW FEEDING
IN THE PREMATURE AND IMMATURE SPARROWS**

By

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Bacchus, 1971

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Relationships between fatty acid composition of diets and adipose tissue were investigated in captive Indian Ringneck Quaker parrots. After an 8- to 24-hour acclimation period, cage birds in different groups were given four semibiotically prepared diets: a high saturated fat diet, a high unsaturated fat diet, a mixed fat diet, and a "control" diet. Biopsies of the interscapular fat pad were taken from birds on each of these diets at 2, 4, 8, 16, 22 and 28 weeks after introduction of the diets. By using gas-liquid chromatography, the percent concentration of the major fatty acid components in the diets and the biopsies was determined.

The major fatty acids recorded from both the food and the biopsies were oleic, palmitic, linoleic, stearic, palmitoleic, and arachidic. The

high unsaturated fat diet seemed to influence fatty acid levels in depot fat within 6-10 weeks. I.e., the percent concentration of oleic acid, palmitoleic acid, stearoleic acid, and palmitate acid in the depot fat tended to approach the levels of these acids in the diet after this period of time. The effects of the high saturated fat diet and the control fat diets on depot fat were negligible. The control fat diet seemed not to influence the fatty acid levels in depot fat. Lecithin acid, linoleic acid, and palmitoleic acid levels in depot fat either were not altered or changes could not be definitely correlated with dietary levels of these fatty acids. The relationship between dietary and metabolized unsaturated depot fatty acids is discussed.

DISCUSSION

Adipose tissue is a metabolized connective tissue having the capability to store triglyceride from dietary ingesta. This tissue can be thought of as consisting of two lipid portions, a "variable" stored or "depot" fat portion that is composed mostly of triglycerides (up to 95 percent of the tissue according to Johnson, 1962) and a phospholipid portion of the cell membrane (Brodbeck, 1988). The main purpose of adipose tissue is as a reserve fuel supply. Upon catabolism, more calories per gram of fat are produced (9.3 kcal/g) than for equivalent amounts of carbohydrates or protein (both of which yield about 4.0 kcal/g) (White, et al., 1981).

The depot fat portion of the adipose tissue in birds, as is normally, can originate in two ways. Depot fat can be newly dietary in origin (nogenous), or it can be a function of intermediary metabolism (metogenous), or a combination of the two (O'Halloran, 1994). Food that is not immediately oxidized may be converted into triglycerides and stored in depot fat for use at a later time. If this transformation occurs, the chemical composition of the depot fat may simply reflect the composition of the dietary fat or be a product of metabolic conversion by the animal (Purkiss, 1980). Variations in chemical composition of the depot fat may be reflected in changes to the levels of fatty acids present in the triglycerides. Fatty acids may vary in chain length as

In the amount of unsaturation

Studies on the composition of depot fat in birds have emphasized the quantifying those factors associated with fat rather than those associated with metabolic conversion. Supporting the dietary influences on fat composition are several studies devoted to chickens, game birds, and some nongamey types (Griffiths (1990), Ferguson and Fisher (1990), Isaacs, et al. (1994), Dickellberry, et al. (1994), and Bell, et al. (1994) noted the effects of dietary fat on specific fatty acids deposited in adipose tissue of chickens. For example, chickens fed a diet containing 16 percent animal tallow showed an increased percentage of stearic acid (C18:0) compared to those fed a control diet low in fat for seven weeks. Chickens fed a 10 percent soy bean oil diet (Hugh & Threlfall, 1989) showed a comparable increase in depot levels of linoleic fatty acid (Dickellberry, et al., 1994).

Four non-vegetarian taxonids were studied by Ross and Leigh (1990) in the Red Grouse (*Lagopus lagopus scoticus*), Ptarmigan (*Lagopus mutus*), Black Grouse (*Tetrao tetrix*), and Capercaillie (*Tetrao urogallus*) collected in northeast Scotland. Fatty acid analyses of depot fat showed a high proportion of stearic acid (18:2) and linoleic acid (18:3). These two acids were also found to be proportionately high in the diets of both the Red Grouse and Ptarmigan. (They do not have dietary data for the other two species.) Linoleic acid (18:3) represented 29-31 percent of the total fatty acids present in the Red Grouse's depot fat. The bird's main food supply, heather (*Calluna vulgaris*), contained approximately

80 percent of this will grow.

Tschumper and others (1991) measured over the same 2000 km² composite in the July-August biomass, and compared the fatty acid composition of 1000 m² cores (calculated from 100 m² of the underlying between Treeline and ground) to the levels and the similar values in their food supply (Larchella and the tree species spp.).

Similarly to the White Flamingo (Leucogeranus leucogeranus) dietary fat seems to affect the fatty acid composition of the diet (Dirkx and King, 1990), either triglycerides, containing 87 percent of the flamingo's diet, change in their acid concentration seasonally. Corresponding changes were found to certain fatty acids from saturated ester adipose tissue taken from the Widge in corresponding seasons.

Other studies have dealt with migratory species; no clear influences of dietary fat composition on the adipose tissue composition have been suggested. Reimann and Farner (1980) measured saponification number (a measure of fatty acid chain length) and iodine number (a measure of the degree of unsaturation) in serum pre-migratory fat of the Bendell's Migratorial Warbler (*Hemitriccus obsoletus guadalcanalis*). No changes in either measure were detected when the warbler fat pads were analyzed during the pre-migratory period (18 February to 20 April). In the skin and carcass, however, slight changes in the saponification number were noted during this period. Reimann and Farner suggested that such an alteration could be dietary in origin.

Reinstra (1951, 1961) also measured saponification number in body fluids of the migratory Eastern Green Woodpecker (*Aix sponsa*).

several vertebrates). An increase in epoxidation number (suggesting a decrease in mean chain length) was reported for the granivorous and omnivorous parrots. No mention was made of any dietary influences on the observed changes in epoxidation number. In determining total body lipid extracts was reported.

Analyses of the fatty acid composition of omnivorous birds were initiated by Miller (1964). He studied the percent composition of the six major fatty acids from fat body extracts in three finches, house, House Sparrow (*Passer domesticus*), House Sparrow (*Passer domesticus*), and the grasshopper finch (*Rhodospiza obsoleta*). Greater differences were found among the finches when compared to each other than when compared to the sparrow. As a later point, Miller commented " . . . it is possible that the nature of the food ingested had some effect on the composition of the fat." Miller did not, however, attempt to discuss the fatty acid composition of the specific foods of each of these species.

Bever and Baker (1966) investigated fatty acid composition in the omnivorous Slaty-tailed Junco (*Junco hyemalis*). In extracting fatty acids from the white rump they noted certain seasonal variations. For example, winter levels of heptadecanoic acid (C17:0) were proportionately high but decreased in the spring, whereas stearic acid (C18:0) and palmitic acid (C16:0) levels varied conversely. These changes were believed to be correlated with a seasonal dietary change--the Junco switches from a seed diet rich

to linoleic acid in winter to an inachthineous diet relatively higher in stearic acid and lower in linoleic acid in the spring (Bentley, 1964). Bauer and Helms concluded therefore that the change in depot fat was probably due to diet.

Elsewhere are instances wherein the authors have hypothesized that some birds may change their diet and thereby alter the nature of their depot fat (Bentley, 1964; Bauer and Helms, 1969). Several field reports substantiate these laboratory hypotheses. Collett and Kyngmark (1962) found that Chaffinches (*Fringilla coelebs* pallidus) change from eating insects in the winter to seeds in the fall. Turbrough and Johnson (1967) noted a seasonal change from fruits to insects in the Nyctice Warbler (*Zonotrichia albicollis*). The Black-tailed Tern (*Sterna paradisaea*) of Nigeria has a short period of high intensity ternite-feeding which occurs prior to a 1000 Km. southern flight in the rainy season (Bauer, 1969). Key (1962) observed a change in diet in the Breviated Kingbird alluvialis. In the winter quarters he stated, "...the pre-migratory accumulation of fat in *A. alluvialis* is associated with the change in composition of the diet."

Papers suggesting an endogenous control of the chemical composition of depot fat in birds are few. Ident and Prys (1966) compared the fatty acid composition of the diet and the intercelular fat pad of the migratory Redpoll (*Acanthis flammea*). In addition to the comparison between diet and depot fat, they also compared depot fats of female and captive Males. Some birds were kept in captivity and maintained on lab diets for six weeks prior to analysis. Fatty acid composition of the depots were

tend to be similar to each other regardless of the fatty acid composition of the three diets. The fatty acid composition of the wild bird's fat was different than that of both the captive birds and their principal natural food (Drosophilidae seed). Hoyt and Peng concluded that the "physiological state of the bird (migration, breeding, etc.) exerts a greater effect on the fatty acid composition of the bird's depot fat than does diet per se."

In an analysis of the fatty acid composition of depot fat, heart, and muscle of the Hood Thrush (*Lyttaea naevia*) Rosen (1981) reported a decrease in saturated fatty acids in these tissues during the breeding season. Stearic acid (II-3) increased during the non breeding period; the essential fatty acids, linoleic (III-6) and arachidonic (III-4), did not change their levels. (Docosahexaenoic (III-6) was present in the muscle and liver but was absent in depot fat.) In addition to Trichloro acid levels changing during the summer, Rosen also noted a decrease in the Thiodio-palmitic acid series (III-5/III-6) in the three tissues analyzed when concentrations were compared to fall pre-migratory values. While Rosen pointed out that the food eaten during the summer months and subsequent fall pre-migratory period might change, he felt that the changes in these fatty acid compositions were probably under metabolic rather than dietary influence.

Harrell (1970) observed seasonal changes in fatty acids of total body extracts from the Ruddy Duck (*Oxyura jamaicensis*). He found that faecal numbers, steric acid (II-1) and docosahexaenoic acid (III-6) levels were greater in the winter than in the summer while stearic acid (II-3) and Thiodio-acid (III-5) levels decreased from summer to winter. He explained that the changes in faecal number and fatty acid percent composition when

which conflict with findings in humans, cannot be precisely and definitely controlled.

In order to assess the most practical and meaningful approach in order to maximize fat deposition, it is important to know if changes in diet during periods may control the accumulation of body fat. In many migratory birds, a rapid and marked increase in fat deposition occurs during the pre-migratory and migratory period. In the spring, for example, significant increases in body weight in the form of fat reserves have been reported [Bahr and Riede, 1960; Odum, 1968; Odum and Petrinase, 1962]. These increases in fat deposition may be accompanied by changes in diet [Bahr and Riede, op. cit.]. If bird migratory birds alter their diets during periods of fat deposition, they might be increasing specific fatty acid levels or simply changing to another diet if available. In both cases, those fatty acid levels would probably be equivalent to those in the diet. If they do not change their diet during periods of increased lipid deposition, they may maintain already existing diet-dependent triglyceride fatty acid levels or they may metabolically alter certain fatty acid synthesizing pathways. In the latter case, those same fatty acids could be alternative to dietary fatty acid levels.

In order to determine influences of specific dietary fatty acids on fat depots in a migratory bird, captive female bats (Pteropus carolinus) were placed on four special diets in Gainesville, Florida in 1968. In each, the fatty acid composition was different. While levels were as these diets, tissues were taken of the interscapular fat pad over a 3-1/2-month period from April to October. Fatty acid composition from depot fat

years during these periods was assigned to their respective diets. The goals of the study were to:

- (1) determine, at intervals, the fatty acid composition of aged fuligo mushrooms' surfaces;
- (2) determine the effects of high unsaturated, high saturated and low fat diets on the fatty acid composition of the diet over a period of time;
- (3) help clarify the degree of influence dietary fatty acids might have on lipid deposition, in this migratory species.

Methodology

Capturing and Caging Methods

The Indigo Buntings obtained for this study were caught in mist nets in the spring and fall of 1982. The 16 captured in the spring (March-April), were brought to Free University, Florida, to Gainesville in May, 1982, whereas the remaining 15 were taken in a grassland habitat at the University of Florida campus during the period from September 29 to October 24. All birds were banded and aged by using color and other differences previously described by Johnson (1982).

In November the birds were divided into four groups as follows: Group 1 contained 6 males and 3 females, Groups 2 and 3 each contained 4 males and 4 females, Group 4 contained 3 males and 2 females. All the tether cones were 3 ft., x 6 ft., x 6 ft. and housed directly in front of closed windows. The room in which the birds were kept was at constant temperature (ca. 20°C) and subjected to natural photoperiod. Birds were weighed in the morning at 2 1/4-day intervals. From Johnson (1982, 1983, 1985), to exceed any seasonal fluctuations in weight comparable to those reported for field buntings (Johnson, 1985).

Preparation and Composition of Diet

All birds were placed on a diet of fine-grain chick feed from the

beginning of November, 1950, through March, 1951, a period of five months. After the experiment all fat was removed for 8-10 hours in order to reduce the percentage of remaining free lipids. After this preliminary period, the four groups were each subjected to a different experimental diet, the compositions of which are given in Table 1. The diets were rated according to their relative abundance of fat and whether they were high in saturated or unsaturated fatty acids. Birds in group 1 were subjected to a diet consisting of 14.8 percent fat. This diet was high in unsaturated fatty acids because sufficient oil was used to increase the total fat percentage. Birds in Group 2 were subjected to a diet containing of 10.6 percent fat. This diet was high in saturated fatty acids because animal fat was used to increase the total fat percentage. Birds in Group 3 were subjected to a diet with less than 1 percent total fat and birds in group 4 were subjected to a diet of 0.9 percent fat. The 0.9 percent fat in the diet given to Group 4 was found to be equivalent to the percent of fat in the fine-grain diet fed which the birds were eating prior to the starvation period. This latter diet was therefore considered a "laboratory control".

Method of Collecting and Preparing samples for Gas-Liquid Chromatographic

Adipose tissue samples were taken from the interscapular fat pad of unanesthetized birds at specified intervals. From 1-10 mg. of fat was removed, the pieces were sufficient to insure melting. The first samples were taken from 29 of the 30 birds on March 29, 1951, prior to the starvation period and introduction of experimental diets. (See March

TABLE 1
COMPOSITION OF THE DIET (PERCENTAGE)

Ingredients	1 High Retinolized Fat	2 Retinolized Fat	3 Retinol Fat	4 Control Fat
Bone	51.8 (g/100g)	51.8 (g/100g)	-	51.8 (g/100g)
Supplemented casein	-	-	51.8 (g/100g)	-
Skimmed milk	29.0	29.0	27.0	27.0
(0% protein)				
Fish meal	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
(0% protein)				
Edible fish oil	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
(0% protein)				
Ground limestone	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Retinolized fat ^a (0.01% ret.)	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Iodized salt	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Alpha-Tocopherol	-	0.05	-	-
Safflower Oil ^b	19.0	-	-	-
Potassium bromate ^c	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
 Percentage protein	21.8	22.0	22.0	22.0
Proximate energy (kcal/100g)	2320	2300	1970	1970
Percentage fat (0.01% retinol added basis)	14.5	12.5	9.5	4.5

In these diets were prepared with the help and guidance of Dr. Isidor Karmy, Nutrition Science Department, University of Florida.

^a Standard supplements of essential vitamins and minerals.

did not have a large enough fat pad to permit biopsy.) Five samples were taken at Research Station 1 (April 11-12, May 3-4, May 12-13, May 21-June 1, and June 14). Two more samples on September 26 and October 11 were also included to observe any long-term effects.

Because 27 samples were collected at the first biopsy, March 21, during the next three months, the capture birds regularly had weight loss to such an extent that an interview of the fat biopsy could not be carried out on all birds due to difficulties in skinning throughout this period. Thus, although the study initially included 31 birds, collecting samples for the first month of the eight periods was necessarily on only four birds, one on each diet. In addition to the four profiles representing each diet, five biopsies were collected at the time from one bird that died subsequently during the second sampling period. These latter samples were taken to assess any variability of the fatty acid concentrations from one profile of the intertarsal fat pad to the next, and were randomly chosen from different sections of the fat pad at various depths.

Gas-Liquid Chromatography Procedure

Samples were weighed and stored frozen until further analysis. Each sample was ultimately homogenized in chloroform-methanol (3:10), deionized water, and the solution collected in a refluxing vessel (Welch et al., 1971). After removal of chloroform-methanol by flash evaporation (at 55°C.) the sample was reconstituted with toluol, or 10 percent methylene chloride for TGA samples. Residue was then removed with the flash evaporator

and the supernatant fraction passed twice a separatory funnel with distilled water. The fatty acids were separated from the non-saponifiable fraction by washing three times with petroleum ether (b.p. 30°-60°C.) after which the aqueous phase was saved. The salts were then converted to their respective acids by neutralizing with 5% NaOH. Three subsequent washings with petroleum ether were carried out to extract the fatty acids. The petroleum ether phase was evaporated as before and the residue quantitatively transferred to a test tube by three 1 ml. washings with reagent-grade hexane. Esterification was accomplished by adding 0.8 ml. CH_2Cl_2 -methanol reagent to the hexane solution and placing the sample over a short bath for five minutes (Oliver, 1967).

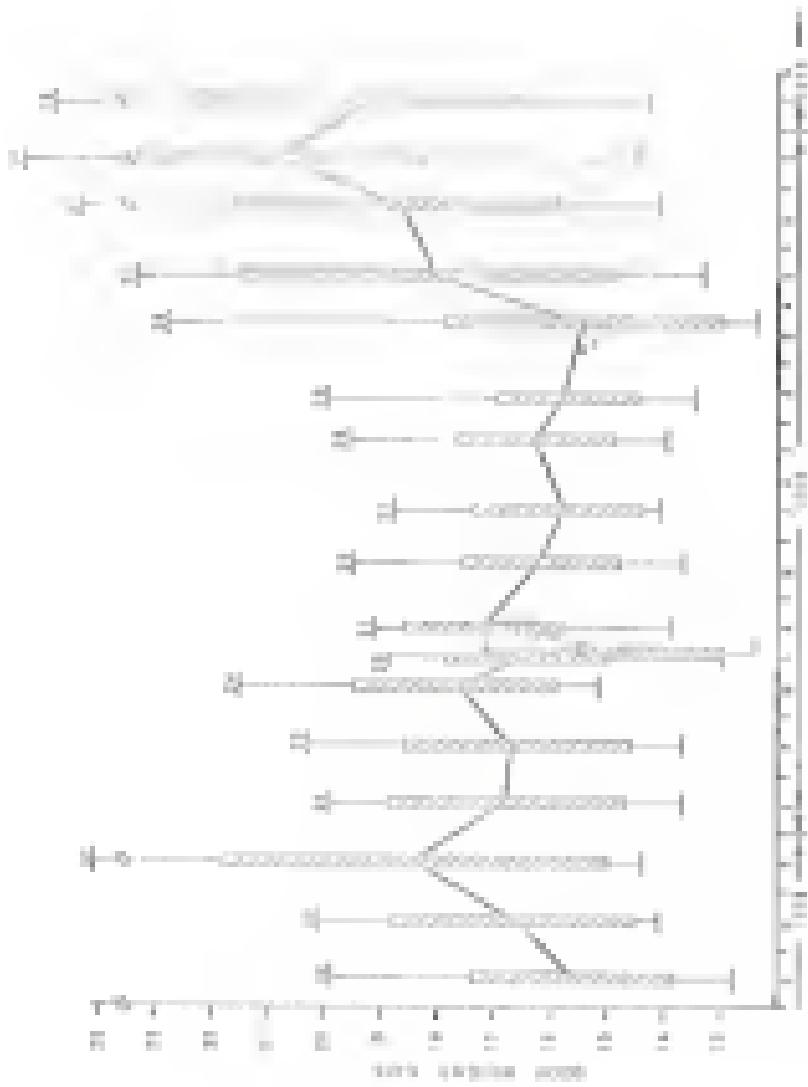
Qualitative and relative quantifications of the methyl esters of the component fatty acids from each sample were made with a Varian Gasograph, Model 440-E, gas chromatograph containing a flame ionization detector operated isothermally at 190°C. The column used was stainless steel (1/8" x 6') packed with 10 percent DC-200 (diethylenglycol succinate) as the stationary phase on 40/60 Chromosorb P. Oven temperature was 190°C. and the flow rates were 8 ml/min. of Ar/g., and 8 l/min . of He. Standard methyl esters for comparing relative retention times were obtained from Applied Science Laboratories, State College, Pennsylvania. Percentages of each fatty acid were calculated by measuring height and relative retention time (Hawley, et al., 1964).

RESULTS

Body Weight at Basal Indigo Starvation

Body weights for the captive Indigo Starlings over a 1-month period are presented in Figure 1. The graph depicts the quail and emu body weight peaks evidently due to increased fat deposits. The first, in October of 1968, indicates a mean weight for 31 birds at 16.1 gm. The second, in December, 1968, is higher, at a mean weight of 20.8 gm for 18 birds. The lowest seasonal mean weight occurred in September, 1968, at 15.8 gm, for 20 birds. An artificial "low" weight was produced after the 8 - 48-hour starvation period at the end of March, 1969. The mean weight for 20 birds after starvation was 14.8 gm. Although variations in mean body weight are apparent, an analysis of repeated measures (Burrus, 1962) showed that the highest and lowest mean weights were not significantly different statistically ($F=1.89$, df 1, 88) with the exception of the artificially induced starvation weight. The mean body weight after the 8 - 48-hours of starvation was significantly different when compared to the mean body weight two days before it ($F=10.6$, df 1, 86, $p < .001$). The mean body weight after starvation was also significantly different when compared to the mean body weight two weeks later ($F=49.6$, df 2, 86, $p < .001$). Observations on the differential fat pad during the starvation period tended to support the view that reductions in body weight are accompanied by a reduction in fat pad size. A noticeable increase in full pad size

all regions and at all sites in the area, the average net primary production was +1.4 GJ/m²/year.



correlation (1) has shown to consistently affect the results of the experimental diets.

Analysis of Fatty Acid Composition

Unsaturated fatty acids

The first triglyceride data from RT of the 21 birds on March 11st, prior to the starvation period, analysis of the fatty acid composition of a sample from the laboratory-fattened oil seed meal is presented as a percentage of the total fatty acid component (Table 2). The results of a univariate analysis of variance indicated that the percentage of each fatty acid was not significantly different between groups. The results of a multivariate analysis of variance indicated that the profile of the six major fatty acids, myristic (14:0), palmitic acid (16:0), palmitoleic acid (16:1), stearic acid (18:0), oleic acid (18:1), and linoleic acid (18:2), together, showed no significant differences between each group.

Synthetic experimental diets

The percentage of fat content per diet is presented in Table 3. This percentage was determined by chloroform-methanol extraction performed on a sample of each diet. The results from two samples of each diet were averaged. This table also contains the percentage of each fatty acid in each diet. In the high unsaturated fat diet, 6% percent of the total fatty acids present was linoleic acid and the total of monolaurin is 99% diet vs. 8% percent. The low saturated fat diet based on oilseed oil/fat con-

TABLE 9

HUMAN CERVICAL CYTOMEGALOVIRUS (CMV) INFECTION IN HUMAN KIDNEYS

Patient No.	Cytomegalovirus					RTU No.
	1		2		3	
	Mean ± S.D.	Mean ± S.D.	Mean ± S.D.	Mean ± S.D.	Mean ± S.D.	
16.0	2.45 ± 2.12	3.31 ± 1.08	2.25 ± 0.48	1.25 ± 0.30	2.00 ± 1.07	
16.1	26.26 ± 6.36	26.01 ± 6.26	29.40 ± 3.16	29.36 ± 6.38	29.36 ± 6.76	
16.2	8.45 ± 2.08	9.10 ± 1.03	8.25 ± 1.04	5.25 ± 1.00	6.50 ± 1.50	
16.3	6.20 ± 1.08	7.23 ± 1.24	6.16 ± 2.03	6.16 ± 1.46	6.88 ± 1.23	
16.4	42.28 ± 3.24	42.12 ± 3.06	42.20 ± 2.88	42.15 ± 3.01	42.00 ± 4.29	
16.5	18.04 ± 6.33	17.24 ± 6.00	16.18 ± 4.16	15.60 ± 4.46	16.40 ± 4.82	

TABLE 4

PERCENTAGE FATTY ACID COMPOSITION OF SYNTHETIC DIETS

	High Monounsaturated Fat Diet	High Saturated Fat Diet	Mixed Fat Diet	Control Fat Diet
Percent fat per diet	16.4	12.4	9.3	6.3
MEU per total fatty acids	0.23	1.43	3.29	4.39
MEU per total fatty acids	15.60	26.16	21.84	20.10
MEU per total fatty acids	0.46	2.41	3.93	2.43
MEU per total fatty acids	0.45	16.40	5.20	16.14
MEU per total fatty acids	19.61	26.20	21.29	20.05
MEU per total fatty acids	48.20	16.40	48.10	6.30

turned 48 percent of the unsaturation within saturated fatty acids. The infant fat and equivalent meat 8% percent of the fatty acid composition as saturated fat. In the control diet (i.e., where the fat portion contributed about 10% of the total feed component) 17 percent of the total fat and supplement was saturated.

Variability of fatty acid composition in rat liver tissue fat pad

The analysis of the fatty acid composition of the samples taken simultaneously from different regions of the same fat pad is presented in Table 4. The first being sample, and when the second biopsy was taken, failing to have time to take several samples from the same fat pad in the same hind-little variation is seen in percentages of the major components (stearic, oleic and palmitic acids). Variation in the minor components (myristic, palmitoleic and stearo) can be compared to the mean and standard deviation of these fatty acids in the pre-diabet biopsy (Table 3). By taking ± 2 standard deviations from the mean of these three fatty acids, the variability observed in Table 4 is not significant because linoleic acid (DB 5) did not occur in the pre-diabet biopsy, a comparison between the samples from the same hind and the pre-diabet biopsy cannot be made and the variability between linoleic acid levels cannot be tested at this time.

Overall fatty acid composition in blood on four experimental diets

The profiles of the fatty acid composition of four feeds are presented in Table 5—the 50% ruminin, hind, the percent fatty acid composition

TABLE 4

 ENERGY USED PER UNIT CONVENTIONAL AND RENEWABLE
 ENERGY AT THE THERMAL POWER PLANT

Country	1	2	3	4	5
H-0	0.98	0.94	1.04	0.95	0.95
H-02	20.27	22.29	25.12	19.11	19.12
H-1	0.48	0.48	0.55	0.51	0.51
H-10	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.20	0.19
H-11	29.59	29.49	29.61	29.67	29.61
H-12	40.77	38.98	39.43	40.49	40.44
H-2	0.28	0.12	0.38	0.37	0.38

TABLE 5 ROCK UNIT AND DEPOSITIONAL ENVIRONMENTS OF THE ROCK

for each diet, reflected by the percent composition of each triacylglyceride. Seven triacylglycerides were taken from the birds on the high unsaturated fat diet and the control fat diet, and eight triacylglycerides were taken from the birds on the high saturated fat diet, and medium-fat diet. The differences in triacylglycerides can be assessed in the graphs below. In Figures 2 through 7, the effects of the four diets on each of the major fatty acids are presented. By grouping like information they way, these figures allow for the comparison of the effects of each dietary fatty acid on the same fatty acid in the various tissues.

Each Figure, representing a single fatty acid, consists of four graphs. The graphs indicate the percentage of that fatty acid from the triacylglycerides taken from the experimental diets. The nature of marks that the bird has been kept on the particular experimental diet is given along with the number of samples. The other kinds of information are also included on each graph. The level of the fatty acid in the experimental diet and ± 2 standard deviation range of variability. This range is based on the standard deviation determined for each fatty acid from the pooled fat samples (Table 1). The standard deviation range is discussed below.

The percent composition of myristoleic acid in the birds kept on the four diets is shown in Figure 2. The ± 2 standard deviation range of variability for this fatty acid was 0.2 percent to 5.8 percent. The levels of myristoleic acid in the birds on the unsaturated, saturated and medium fat diets were within the range of variability for all triacylglycerides. The bird on the control fat diet showed greater variability of myristoleic

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acid levels were, in biopsy number 2, oleic acid level was 0.9 percent and in biopsy number 3, oleic acid level was zero. The mean levels of stearic acid in the four diets were 0.2 percent in the unsaturated fat diet, 0.7 percent in the saturated fat diet, 1.8 percent in the animal fat diets, and 4.8 percent in the control fat diet.

The percent composition of palmitic acid in the birds kept on the four diets is shown in Figure 3. The range of variability for this fatty acid was 10.6 percent to 17.6 percent. In the bird on the unsaturated fat diet, palmitic acid in biopsies 1, 2, 3, and 4 were within the range of variability. Levels of palmitic acid in biopsies 2 and 3 were below 10, at 10.6 percent and 10.8 percent, respectively. In the last biopsy, the palmitic acid level was again entering the range of variability. In the bird on the saturated, animal and control fat diets, the palmitic acid levels varied greatly while staying to or near the range of variability. Mean palmitic acid levels in the unsaturated fat diet was 13.0 percent, in the saturated fat diet was 16.4 percent, in the animal fat diet was 10.8 percent, and in the control fat diet was 17.6 percent.

The percent composition of stearic acid in the birds kept on the four diets is shown in Figure 4. The range of variability for this fatty acid was 2.6 percent to 5.6 percent. In the bird on the unsaturated fat diet, levels of stearic acid increased above the range of variability for Biopsies 2 and 3, rising to 11.6 percent and 13.0 percent, respectively. The stearic acid levels in the remainder of the biopsies from the bird on the unsaturated fat diet were between 3.4 percent and 5.1 percent, and

Figure 1. Percent probability that μ_0 is true or false as a function of n for different values of δ . A = 0.05, $\sigma^2 = 1$, $\mu_0 = 0$, $\mu_1 = \delta$. The solid line represents the true value of μ_1 . The dashed line represents the mean of the posterior distribution.

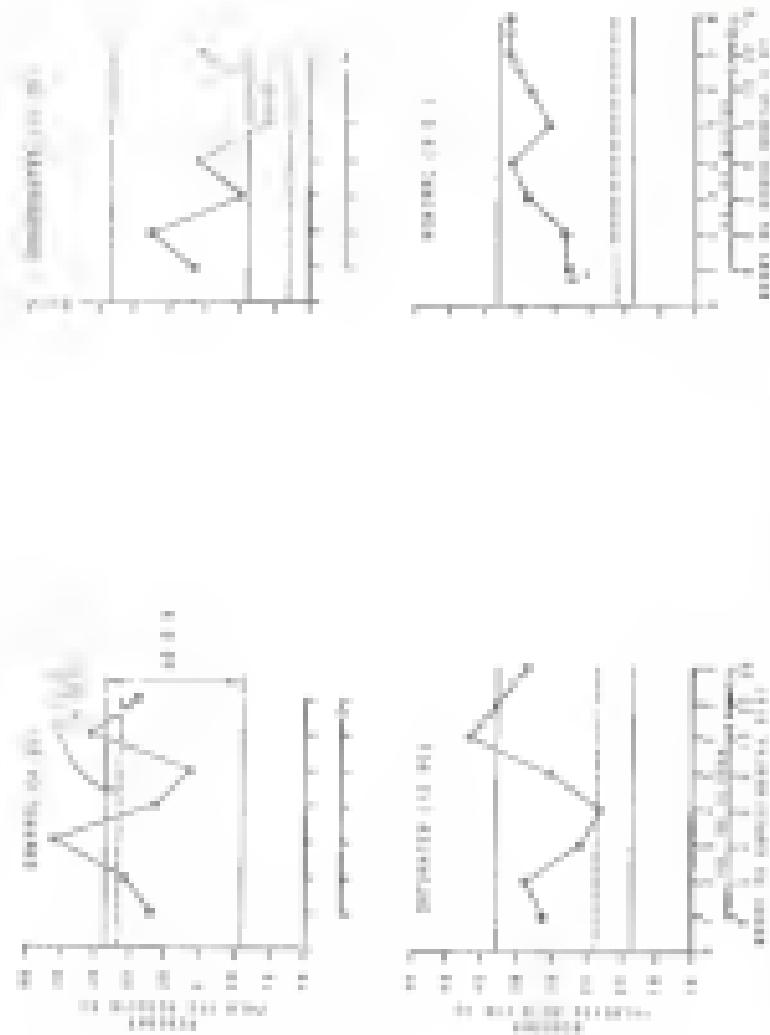
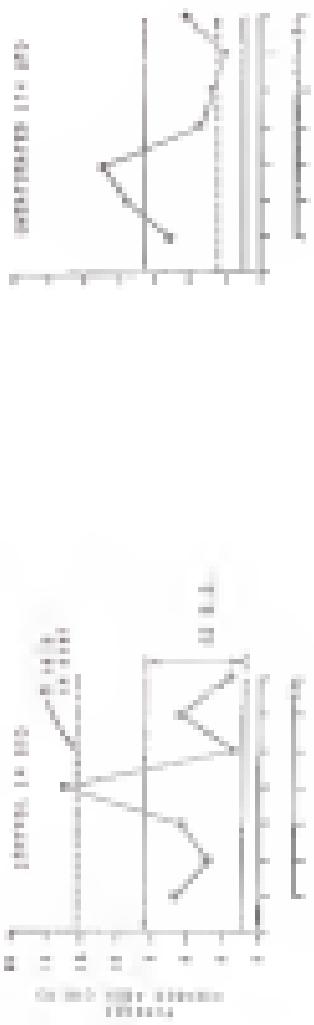


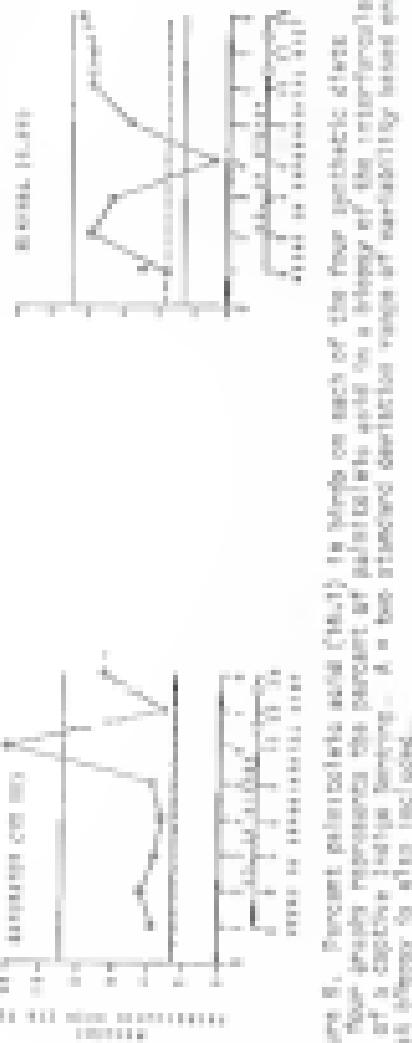
Fig. 1. Four time series plots showing the relationship between the number of days to first symptom onset and the number of days to hospital admission for four different age groups. The top row shows the data for children aged 0–4 years and the bottom row shows the data for children aged 5–14 years. The left column shows the data for children with mild symptoms and the right column shows the data for children with severe symptoms.



within the range of variability for Oleic fatty acid. In the bird on the saturated fat diet, Ibispl. 2.3, and 4 were above the range of variability of 12.5 percent, 18.7 percent, and 13.4 percent, respectively, whereas the stearic acid levels in Ibispl. 5, 6, 7, and 8 of this bird were within or very close to the range of variability. Stearic acid levels in the bird on the control fat diet were all within the range of variability for the eight Ibispl. Stearic acid levels in Ibispl. 4 of this bird was 16.3 percent. The same levels of stearic acid in the four diets were: 3.0 percent in the unsaturated fat diet, 16.8 percent in the saturated fat diet, 8.2 percent in the control fat diet and 18.3 percent in the control fat diet.

The percent composition of Palmitoleic acid in the birds kept on the four diets is shown in Figure 2. The range of variability for this fatty acid was the same as that of Stearic acid, i.e., 2.5 percent to 8.8 percent. In the bird on the saturated fat diet, palmitoleic acid levels remained within the range of variability for six of seven Ibispl. Ibispl. 6, at 1.6 percent, was below the range of variability. On this graph we can see what appears to be a gradual reduction of the adipose tissue level of palmitoleic acid, with respect to time. The trend approaches the lower limit of the range of variability. Palmitoleic acid levels in the birds on the other three diets remained within the range of variability for almost all Ibispl, with the following exceptions: Ibispl. 6, from the bird on the saturated fat diet, exhibited a 13.8 percent palmitoleic acid

Principles of present practice (part 1) is a short no more than 20 page booklet which is designed to help you to understand the principles of present practice.

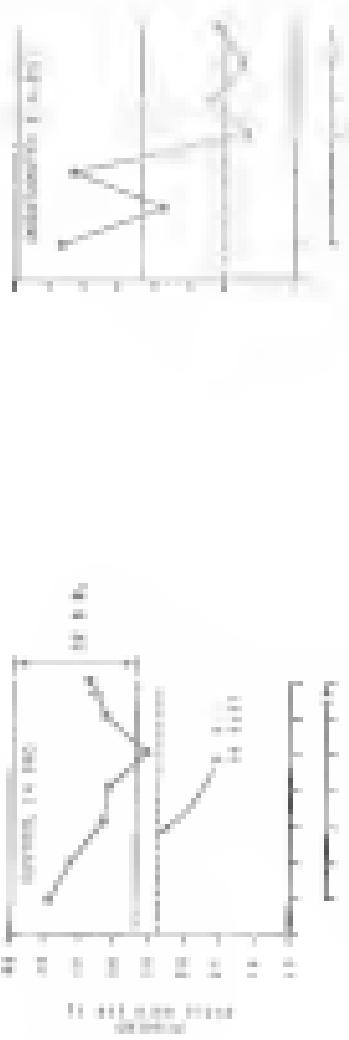


level, above the level of variability. In graph 6, the level on the unsaturated fat diet, drops one percent, and rises to 0.8 percent, below the range of variability. The levels of palmitoleic acid levels were apparent in the birds on the saturated, mixed or control fat diets. The mean levels of palmitoleic acid in the four diets were: 1.04 percent in the unsaturated fat diet, 0.6 percent in the saturated fat diet, 0.1 percent in the mixed fat diet, and 1.0 percent in the control fat diet.

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The percent composition of oleic acid in the feeds kept in the four diets is shown in Figure 8. The range of variability for this fatty acid was 32.1 percent to 48.3 percent. Oleic acid levels in the bird on the unsaturated fat diet rose to just outside of the range of variability in chapter 6, down to 38.9 percent. In samples A, B, C, and D, oleic acid levels in this bird ranged at levels between 16.8 percent and 20.1 percent. Oleic acid levels in the bird on the saturated fat diet fluctuate greatly dropping below and returning to the range of variability (the low point occurred in chapter 6, when oleic acid was 27.6 percent). Oleic acid levels in the bird on the mixed fat diet remained at or near the range of variability. Oleic acid levels in the bird on the control fat diet showed a consistent decline between chapters 1 and 8, dropping to 39.3 percent. But in samples A and D, the oleic acid increased back to the range of variability. The mean levels of oleic acid in the four diets were: 39.0 percent in the unsaturated fat diet, 38.3 percent in the saturated fat diet, 39.3 percent in the mixed fat diet, and 39.6 percent in the control fat diet.

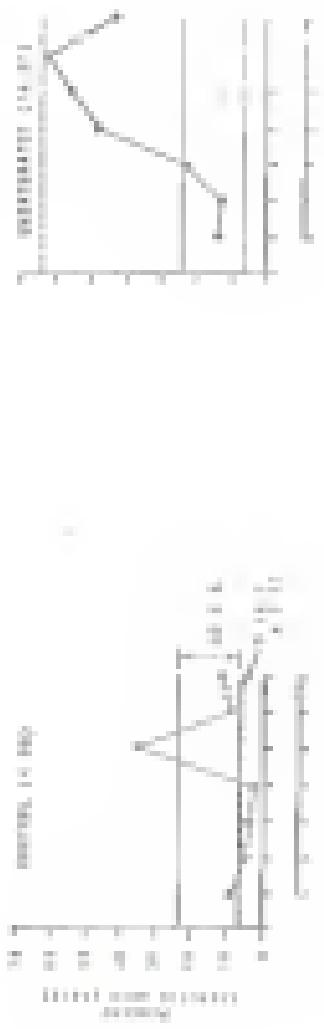
Naar de enige die nog leeft van de vroegere bewoners van het huis dat nu een museum is.



The percent unsaturated fatty acids in the birds kept on the four diets is shown in Table 7. The range of variability for the fatty acids was 8.8 percent to 10.0 percent. Linoleic acid levels in the bird on the unsaturated fat diet continually increased from Mayay 1, at 18.9 percent to 31.8 percent in Mayay 6. A drop in Mayay 7 linoleic acid level to 40.8 percent followed. Linoleic acid levels in the saturated fat diet varied slightly but remained within the range of variability for all Mayays except Mayay 7. At a +1 percent linoleic acid level, 11 was slightly below the lower limit of the range of variability. Linoleic acid levels in the bird on the animal fat diet dropped to 11.1 percent, below the range of variability, in Mayay 3. Mayays 4 and 5 showed increases to 7.4 percent which is within the range of variability but, again, in Mayays 6, 7, and 8, linoleic acid levels declined. Linoleic acid levels in Mayay 9 was 4.7 percent, followed by zero levels on the last two Mayays. On the bird on the control diet, the linoleic acid levels remained relatively constant near the lower limit of the range of variability for all Mayays except Mayay 6. In this case, the linoleic acid levels rose to 20.8 percent.

In the preceding figures, the dietary fatty acid levels were compared with adipose tissue fatty acid levels. The Figures presented fatty acid levels in both diet and tissue for each separate fatty acid. The data in Table 8 can be regrouped so that all tissue fatty acid percentages are presented together for each separate diet (Figures 8-11). In this way, it can be seen which fatty acids make up the major portion of each animal tissue Mayay. Also, in these graphs, corresponding changes in the per-

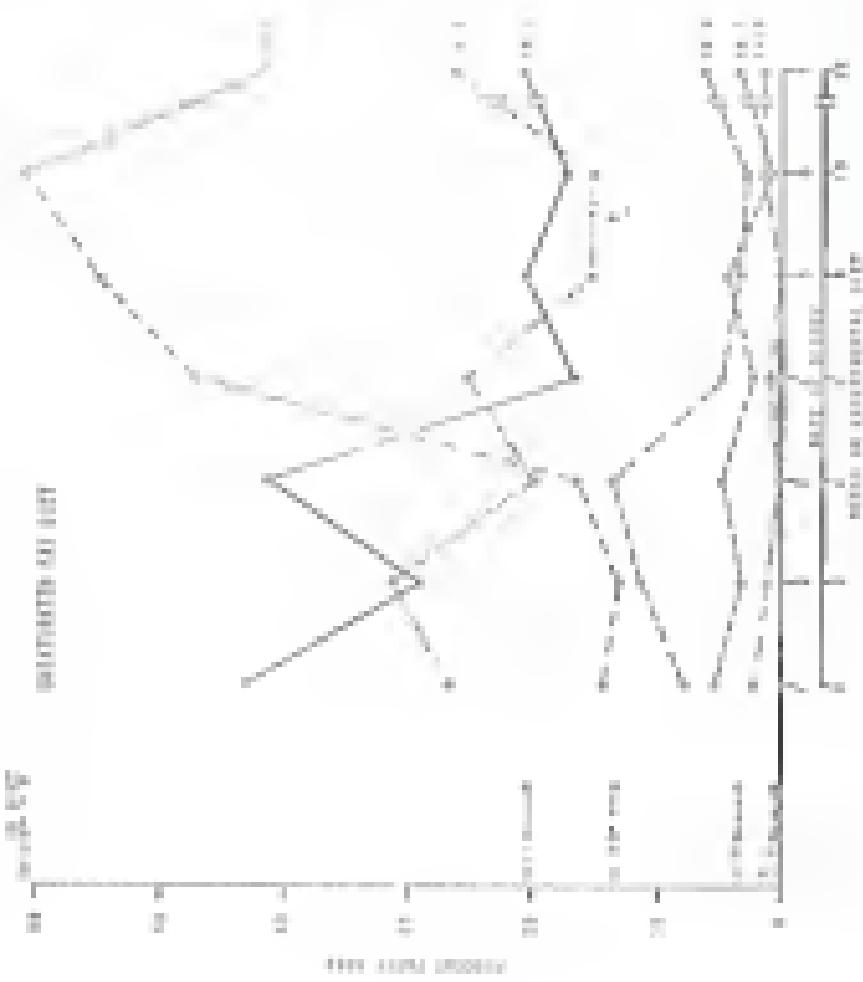
WILSON, 1914.
Wilson, 1914.
Wilson, 1914.



content of any one triglyceride will influence the proportion of the various fatty acids can be detected.

The percentages of the fatty acids in the blood fats as the saturated fat acids are presented in Figure 8. The major components in triglycerides 1, 2, and 3 were stearic and palmitic acids. Added together they constituted 69.2 percent (68.7 percent) of the total fatty acids present in these three triglycerides. In the remaining triglycerides they represented less than 60.0 percent of the total fatty acids present because linoleic acid (which had been less than 21.8 percent of the total fatty acids in the first three triglycerides) became the dominant fatty acid. Linoleic acid represented over 60 percent of the total fatty acids present in triglycerides 4, 5, 6, and 7. An interesting relationship between the present composition of palmitic and oleic acid is apparent in this figure. In triglyceride 2, oleic acid level dropped, relative to its level in triglyceride 1, from 47.8 percent to 35.8 percent whereas the palmitic acid level increased from 36.4 percent in triglyceride 1 to 3.19 percent in triglyceride 2. In triglyceride 3, oleic acid increased to 41.8 percent while palmitic acid dropped to 36.6 percent. Thus, as the oleic acid level dropped, the palmitic acid level rose when triglycerides 1, 2, and 3 were compared. A similar complementary relationship is seen between them, the fatty acids when triglyceride 4 levels are compared with triglyceride 3 levels, and triglyceride 5 levels are compared with triglyceride 4 levels. The changes in level between triglyceride 4 and 5 are not great enough for the complementary relationship to be seen and it absent when triglyceride 7 is compared to triglyceride 6, since the level of both fatty acids now is the least triglyceride. The levels of stearic, palmitoleic, and

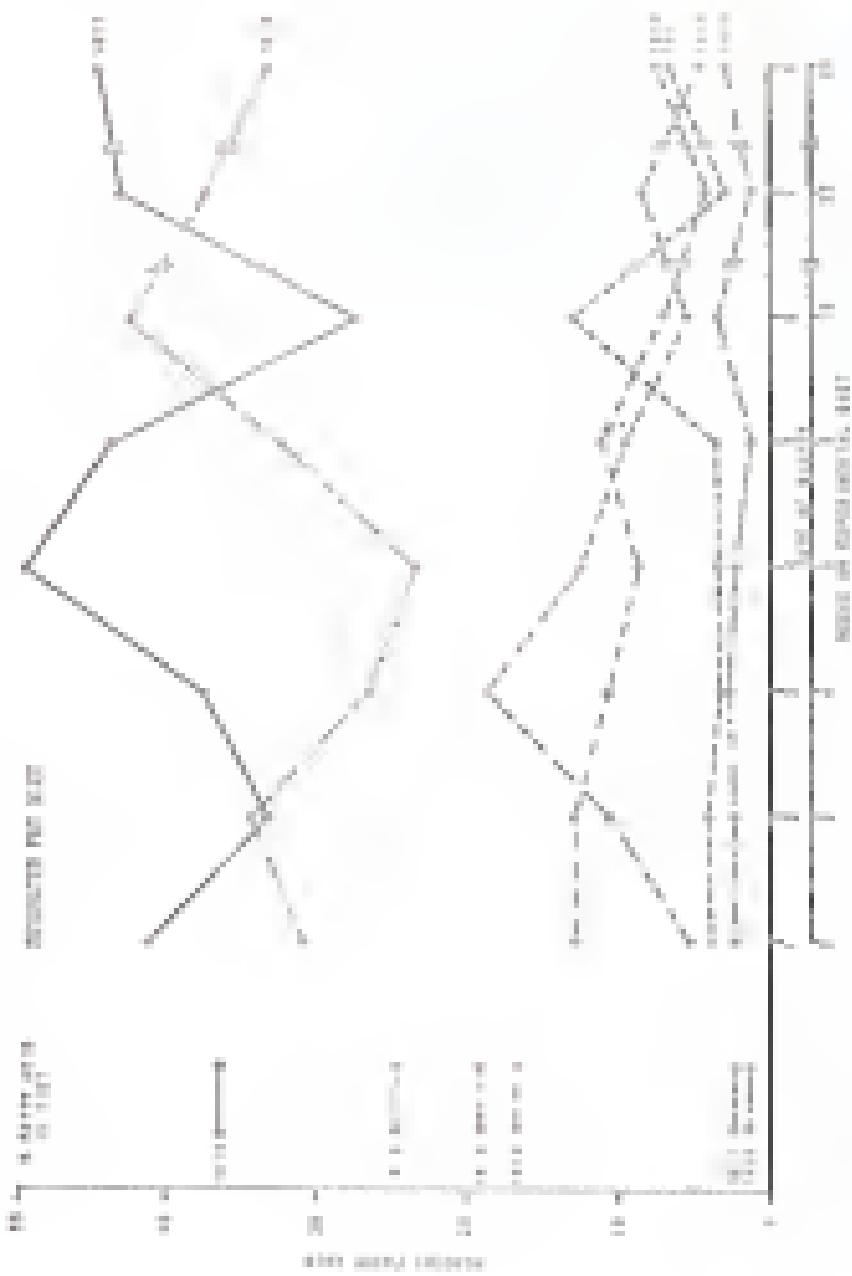
Figure 1. Results of the study of the effect of the addition of organic acids on the properties of polyacrylate gel systems.



and myristic acids constitute relatively constant and minor components of the total fatty acids in the bird kept on the unsaturated fat diet. A slightly decreasing trend in stearic and palmitoleic acid may be seen from Biopsies 1 through 3.

The percentage of fatty acids in the bird kept on the saturated fat diet is presented in Figure 4. Oleic and palmitic acids are the major fatty acids constituting over 40 percent of the total fatty acids of every biopsy. The complementary relationship between oleic and palmitic acid levels described in the bird on the unsaturated diet is also seen here. The relationship is noted when the levels of oleic and palmitic acids from each biopsy are compared with their respective levels in the previous biopsy. For example, oleic acid is 41.8 percent of the total fatty acids present and palmitic acid is 31 percent of the total fatty acids in Biopsy 1. In Biopsy 2, oleic acid drops to 33.9 percent while palmitic acid rises to 36.4 percent. In Biopsy 3, oleic acid level increases to 37.8 percent while palmitic acid drops to 31.8 percent. This complementary relationship for each successive biopsy throughout the experimental period. The levels of linoleic, stearic, palmitoleic, and myristic acid constitute relatively constant and minor components of the total fatty acids in this bird. Stearic acid level rises to 18.7 percent in Biopsy 3, from a 2.8 percent level in Biopsy 1. Stearic acid levels in the remaining three biopsies remained below 10.0 percent. Linoleic acid levels were highest in Biopsies 1 and 2, at 13.1 percent for both, and declined gradually to 6.8 percent in Biopsy 3. Myristic and palmitoleic acid levels

Figure 5. Effect of a uniform load distribution on the mean time history flow variables for various values of α and β .



does not rise above 4 percent in any tissue sample except in trapezius 4 and 8. In trapezius 6, palmitoleic acid rises to 12.6 percent and, after dropping to 3.1 percent in trapezius 7, it again rises to 6.7 percent in the last biopsy.

The percentage of fatty acids in the total lipid as the unsaturated fatty acids is presented in Figure 10. Oleic and palmitoleic acids are, again, the major fatty acids constituting over 50 percent of the total fatty acids of every biopsy.

The complementary relationship described in the lipid in the unsaturated and saturated fat diets is shown here, in the lipid in the animal fat diet. The levels of stearic and palmitic acid remained quite constant for all biopsies. Percentages of the remaining fatty acids, i.e., linoleic, arachidic, palmitoleic, and myristic, again constitute relatively constant components of the total fatty acids. Levels of these fatty acids are slightly lower in the lipid than in the lipid in the unsaturated and saturated fat diets. Except for the linoleic acid level in Biopsy 1, which is 18.5 percent, the percent of linoleic acid is less than 8 percent of the total fatty acids for biopsies 2-7. Stearic, palmitoleic, and myristic acids, separately, do not exceed 5 percent of the total fatty acids for any biopsy.

The percentage of fatty acids in the lipid kept as the control fat diet is presented in Figure 11. In all biopsies except Biopsy 5, oleic and palmitoleic acids are the major fatty acids constituting over 50 percent of the total fatty acids of every biopsy. In Biopsy 5, linoleic acid, at 36.0 percent, was the major fatty acid, with oleic acid representing

“Believe me, we are not yet past the moment when most
of us would consider it a privilege to be invited to a dinner party.”

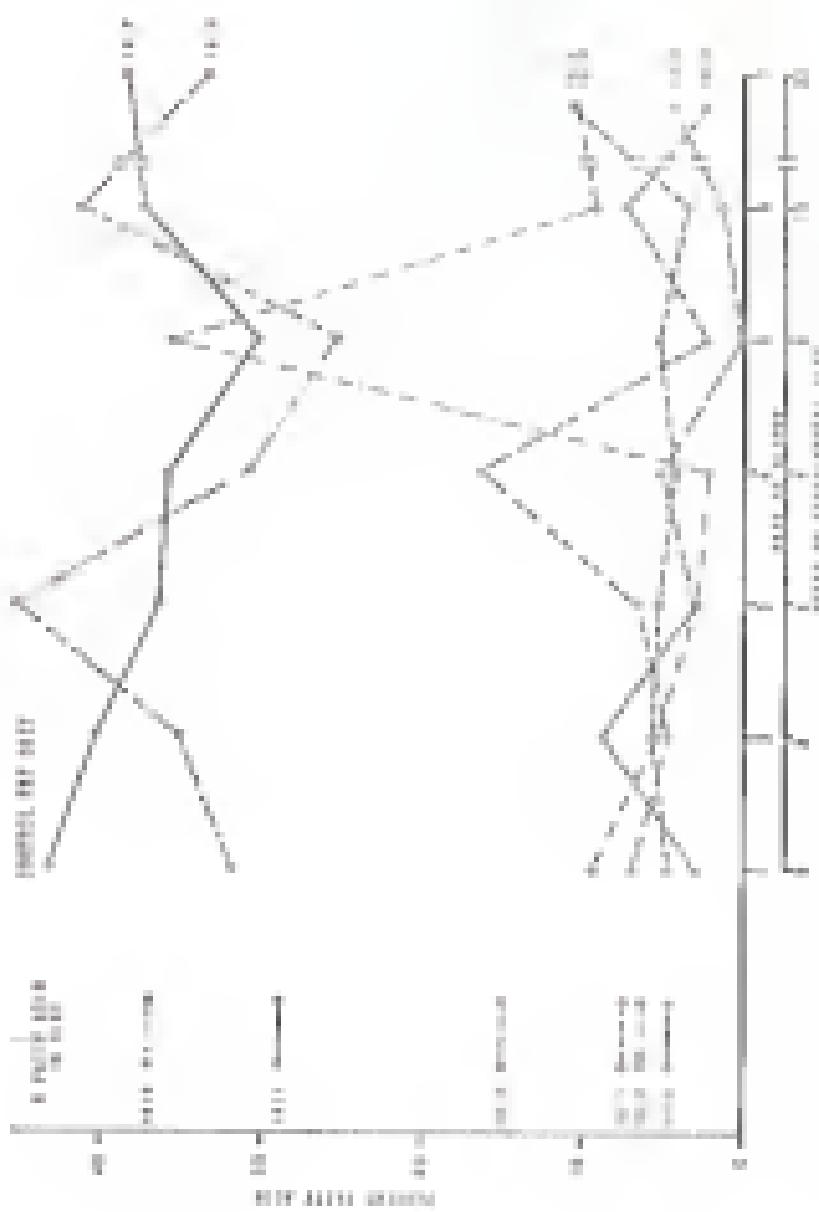


Figure 12. Effect of the cost of the central facility on the present value of total profit in the different regions from the perspective of the 2000 base case scenario.



26.7 percent of the total fatty acids. In all other bispeptides stearic acid occurred at levels of 2.6 percent to 10.9 percent. Although stearic acid levels do not vary greatly between bispeptides 1 and 2, palmitic acid levels do, varying between 23.8 percent and 35.6 percent. The complementary relationship described in the birds on the unsaturated and saturated diet after 6 weeks here, as in the case of the bird on the normal diet diet. Stearic, palmitoleic, and myristic acids again constitute relatively constant components of the total fatty acids. Stearic acid in Figure 4 increased to 10.7 percent, but in all other bispeptides the fatty acid constituted less than 8 percent of the total fatty acids.

In order to determine whether the effects of the after the total saturated fatty acid levels, stearic acid, palmitic acid and oleic acid are added together for each bispeptide. The sum of all saturated fatty acids from each bispeptide can then be compared (Figure 12). Included in this figure is the sum of saturated fatty acids in each diet. No trends in the levels of saturated fatty acids are apparent throughout the five and one-half months of the experimental period in birds on any of the diets.



11. *Principles of Music*, 2nd ed., by Dr. E. H. Ladd, published by the University of Michigan Press.

Body Weights of Captive Juvenile Cardinals.

In order to observe the possible influence dietary body and composition weights have on diet fat in the Juvenile Cardinals, it was essential that captive birds undergo some fat deposition. Although a quantitative lack of deposit fat to the tectorcular fat pad was not made, it was apparent that prior to sterilization, at the time the first blimp was taken on March 26, subcutaneous tectorcular fat pads were present in 10 out of 21 birds. Conversely, during the sterilization period a conspicuous reduction in size of this fat pad was apparent. Helms and Bruey (1960) found that tectorcular fat pad size in the Tree Sparrow (*Spizella arborea*) and the White-crowned Sparrow (*Zenaidura leucophrys*) correlated with dietary weight changes. From data in Figure 1, the statistical analysis presented to the reader, and the observed increase in fat pad size following sterilization of the cardinals, the increase in body weight experienced between March 26 and April 12 may therefore be accepted as a function of the hormone in fat deposition.

Although a significant decrease in body weight occurred during the sterilization period no might be expected, no statistically significant change in mean body weights were observed seasonally. There are several possible explanations for these results. The great variability among the body weights is apparent in the ranges and standard deviations presented

for each year to Figure 1. The mean weights collected annual trends, suggest increased weights recorded during the winter of 1968 and the fall of 1969. A second possible explanation relates to the presence of an oil pollution feed supply. Although seasonal increases in body weight of captive birds have been suggested by Helms (1969a), he has also indicated that these weight changes may be an "artifact of abundant food" (1969a). In the present study seasonal increases in the captive Red-tail's weight may be affected by the same artifact. Decreases in body weight could be explained in the presence of "abundant food," the data which Helms (1969a) presents suggesting seasonal weight changes in captive White-throated Sparrows also explain this other point. Three of the four sparrows for which he showed data were kept "under natural conditions." Fat deposition and reduction in these three birds is more evident than in the fourth which was kept at a constant room temperature (ca. 20°C). The fact that the present study was also done at room temperature influences a third possible reason why the captive birds were not capable of showing clear seasonal fat deposition. Thus, captivity and the factors associated with it (ad libitum food schedules, constant temperature, etc.) may possibly have interfered with fat deposition in caged Red-tail Sparrows.

Analysis of Fatty Acid Composition

Analysis of the first biopsy taken on fat deposits began to estimate late indicated that the fatty acid composition of 12 pre-experimental Red-tail Sparrows was very similar to adipose tissue taken from the flesh

mycteryous bird thresh to summer (Brown, 1964), Universe Quail (Mehlum, 1961), and several mammals including dog (Cochrane, 1961), mouse (Mehlum, 1961) and man (Creggery and Morgan, 1964). For example, stearic acid represents about 18 percent of the total fatty acids present in the dog adipose tissue, 24 percent in man, 42 percent in mice, 38 to 49 percent in the bird thresh, 36 percent in the domestic quail, and 41 percent in the pre-diab^t Daffy Duckling. The profile of fatty acid concentrations in the pre-experimental bushings is noticeably different from the spring duck (Stock and Helm, 1960) and fall catches of birds studied by Miller (1961). For example, oleic acid represents about 21 percent of the total fatty acids present in the ducks and 38 percent to 48 percent for the five species observed by Miller. Also, linoleic acid in the pre-diab^t bushing represented about 14 percent of the total fatty acids present, whereas it represented 38 percent of the fatty acids in the ducks. Since Stock and Helm's observations were based on entire bird carcasses, they are not directly comparable to the present analyses which were based on adipose tissue extracts. In Miller's five species, stearic acid, at 38 percent to 49 percent, was the major fatty acid in the Daffy Duckling; however, these levels were much lower than the 41 percent amount observed in the bushing. The similarities of fatty acid composition between birds and mammals may be a function of the birds' being either caged or in a non-migratory state. These similarities may also be due to a lack of adaptive importance to specifying fatty acid composition. The differences among the birds mentioned above may be a function of age, sex, diet, breed, time of year of the analysis, the degree of fatness,

metabolic and dietary factors as well as genetic susceptibility.

The major fatty acids (16:0, 16:1, 18:1, 18:0, 18:2, and 18:3) constitute nearly 100 percent of the fatty acids found in the depot fat of the 100% buttering. The percent of each of these fatty acids in the diet can be compared with the same fatty acids in the bird's adipose tissue after exposure to the diet. Figures 6 through 9 present these comparisons. When the fatty acid content in the diet and the first biopsy show similar percentages of the total fatty acids, no direct conclusions about the effect of diet on the bird's fat can be made. When the fatty acid percentage in the diet is significantly different from the level of the same fatty acid in the first biopsy, the effects of the diet on the three fatty acid levels can be assessed. If the dietary level differs at least two standard deviations from the fatty acid level in the first biopsy, the influence of direct dietary influence on fat composition may be verified. For example, in Figure 6 each graph represents the change with respect to the of myristic acid (14:0) in a bird given one of four specific diets. In the case of this acid, it is difficult to determine whether or not the percent composition of the dietary myristic acid has a major effect on myristic acid level in the depot fat. This is because the percent composition of this fatty acid in all diets is within the ± 2 standard deviation range of variability of the first biopsy, and the percent composition of myristic acid in the depot fat nearly equals this range.

In the case of the palmitic acid (Figure 8), variability from biopsy to biopsy fails to appear. This is especially true in the birds main-

tributed on the control and high saturated fat diets. In both of these cases it is, therefore, difficult to determine how much effect the dietary level of palmitic acid has on the depot level. However, in the bird on the high unsaturated fat diet, and the bird on the enriched fat diet, certain trends can be discerned. In the former (Figure 9), a lowering in the tissue level of palmitic acid (from 27 percent to 18 percent) to approach the percent composition of the diet (18 percent) was apparent. The level in the last biopsy reversed this trend, however. In the bird on the enriched fat diet, a gradual increase in percent composition of palmitic acid was seen rising from 28 percent to 36 percent, although the level of the palmitic acid in the diet was 18 percent. Although this change is within the ± 2 standard deviation range, it is interesting to note that the direction of change of the palmitic acid level in this bird was away from the palmitic acid level in the diet.

Comparing the effects of diet on stearic acid levels, with respect to time, certain changes are evident (Figure 10). As in the effect of the high unsaturated diet on palmitic acid level, the stearic acid level in the high unsaturated fat diet tends to approach the level of stearic acid in the diet. Stearic acid level in the high saturated fat diet was clearly greater than the ± 2 standard deviation range of variability for the stearic acid level in the bird on this diet (9 percent to 8 percent). After four weeks (28 April), the level of stearic acid in the depot increased and approached the level of this saturated fat in the diet (18.5 percent) but keeping the bird on the diet resulted in a lowered percentage level in the last two samples taken after 22 and 26 weeks, similar

to this is the effect: blagay (4 percent). The third on the animal diet that showed the least variability of oleic acid with the depot levels fluctuating around the dietary level.

The effect of diet on palmitoleic acid (16:1) is less pronounced (Figure 8). The level of this fatty acid is below the ± 2 standard deviation range of variability in the case of the bird on the high unsaturated fat diet. Only on the bird on 90% oilseed are the possibility of a dietary influence indicated but this effect is variable and too low for any significance. The range of variability includes palmitoleic acid levels on the other three diets, but the true fatty acid levels here also within the range of variability for about 80 percent. Therefore, no conclusions regarding dietary influence on this fatty acid can be made from the data available in this study.

The direct influence of a dietary fatty acid on a depot fatty acid was more readily seen in the changes in percent composition of oleic acid (17:1) in the bird on the high unsaturated fat diet (Figure 8). The range of variability of this fatty acid in pre-experimental birds was 20.1 percent to 20.3 percent. The level of this fatty acid in the unsaturated diet was 20 percent. By the fourth blagay, eight weeks after the bird had been placed on the unsaturated fat diet, the percent concentration of oleic acid in the depot fat was approximately 20 percent. The level of oleic acid in this bird remained at about 20 percent through the remainder of the 22-week experimental period.

This direct influence which a dietary fatty acid imposed on the depot congreement was closely correlated with the effect the oleic acid

In the animal fat diet but at the level of oleic acid in the depot fat no apparent effect is seen when compare levels of oleic acid in the depot fat of the bird measured at this period (Fig. 6). In Figure 6 the level of dietary oleic acid is well below the level of depot oleic acid in the fast four weeks from this bird. Thus, the dietary fatty acid in this case does not appear to influence directly the concentration of oleic acid in adipose tissue.

The effects of the other two diets on the fatty acid are not so easily interpreted. In the bird kept on the control diet, the oleic acid concentration in the depot fat seems to be undergoing a change in concentration (from 42 percent to 48 percent) which approaches the dietary level (39 percent). However, at the tenth week the depot oleic acid level rises to 50 percent so that the overall trend after 8 weeks is not clear. The effect of the oleic acid levels in the high saturated fat diet are in the range of variability and no effect is surely now known.

Direct and indirect effects of a dietary fatty acid were also seen in the case of linoleic acid (Fig. 2) (Figure 2). In the bird kept on the high unsaturated fat diet, the percent concentration of linoleic acid in the depot fat begins to approach the concentration of the dietary linoleic acid by the sixth week, i.e., from 19 percent to 47 percent, and continued to increase to over 60 percent by the tenth week. The dietary level of linoleic acid was 40 percent. Although the seventh biopsy point indicates a lowering of linoleic acid to 43 percent, the direct influence of the dietary linoleic acid is clear since the dietary level of the acid is far above the range of variability. The linoleic acid levels in the bird in

the related diet showed a different response. In this bird the level of linoleic acid dropped from 16 percent to zero by 22 weeks on the diet while the dietary level was over 12 percent. As is the case of the stearic acid, the dietary level was clearly out of the range of the levels of availability for linoleic acid but the depot fatty acid did not reach levels equivalent to the linoleic acid levels in this diet. In the intermediate and high saturated fat diet, availability was generally small and was close to the percent concentration of the dietary linoleic acid, making it difficult to discern dietary influence upon depot fatty acids.

The most apparent dietary influence reported by this study was the variation in depot fatty acids in hens fed diets free of the bird on the high unsaturated fatty acid diet. With the exception of arachidic acid, tissue levels of fatty acids in this bird seem to be influenced to varying degrees by the percentage in the diet of the same fatty acids. The acids in the bird's depot fat were changed from their initial levels to approach, either by increasing or decreasing, their respective levels to that of the diet. These results support the reports by Courtinckx (1964), Hicklberry et al. (1965) and others who reported influences on chicken depot fat by diets containing high percentages (10 percent or greater) of unsaturated fatty acids. The most apparent response indicating an availability of the dietary component to influence directly the depot fatty acids is seen in the animal fat diet, particularly in the case of oleic and linoleic acid and possibly with reference to palmitic acid, as well.

The lack of a clear-cut relationship between dietary fatty acids and depot fat in man in the bird on the animal fat diet is not without precedent. Jacobs (1962) found that chickens raised for 25 days on

diete containing less than 8 percent tristearin, safflower oil or sausages did not alter the relative proportion of stearic acid and palmitic acid in depot fat samples. Such results are consistent with those found in the present study, i.e., stearic acid. Tristearin and, to a lesser degree, palmitic acid levels in the bird or the animal fat diet were not influenced by those fatty acids in the diets. West and Reng's report (1954) of dietary effects on depot fatty acids in the budget I tend to agree with those of Davis. They found that dietary fatty acids did not influence depot fatty acids in birds on three different diets. Since the fatty acids of the animal fat diets in the present study did not seem to influence the depot fat of the bird kept in that diet, it is possible that the percentage of fat in the diets West and Reng gave the budgets was not large enough for the fatty acids in the diet to influence the tissue. It should also be pointed out that West and Reng's study was terminated after six weeks whereas in the present study six weeks were required to see the first signs of any dietary influence of fatty acids. All of these results suggest that although fat deposition may occur in a non-selective or arbitrary diet, dietary fat quantity, as well as quality, might determine the influence of the dietary fatty acids on specific fatty acid levels in the depot fat.

Since the data were regressed by bird rather than by fatty acid (Figures 9 through 11), an interesting complementary relationship was seen between stearic acid (94.7) and palmitic acid (19.0) levels. This complementarity was noted only in the birds on the high unsaturated and

high saturated fat diet. In the case of the saturated fat diet, it is possible that because these two components make up the major portion of the total fatty acids present, the observed effect is purely a *superficial complementarity*—that is, a change in the level of one fatty acid which constitutes 30 to 40 percent of the total fatty acids, is capable of altering the level of another fatty acid which represents a smaller high percent of the total fatty acids. Salliere et al. (1967) followed the levels of palmitic, palmitoleic, and oleic acids decreased in total hydrocarbons kept on a 90 percent linoleic acid diet, as the linoleic acid level increased. This argument doesn't seem acceptable in the present case, however, for in the bird on the high unsaturated fat diet (Figure 8) the same complementary relationship between palmitic and oleic acids was present even though linoleic acid was the major fatty acid in four of the seven hydrocarbons. That might be suggested that these complementary relationships is that an effective alteration (either metabolically or dietary controlled) in the depot levels of one of these two fatty acids could induce a complementary change in the other, if the diet contains high levels (over 11 percent) of fat. This complementarity was not detected in the bird on the mineral fat diet, meaning that this bird was maintaining physiologically levels of fatty acids regardless of the dietary fatty acid compounds. This latter point is supported by the earlier observation that the fatty acid levels in the depot fat do not seem to be influenced directly by the fatty acid concentration of the unsaturated fat diet. These and Reiss' results (1967) do

also indicate a palmitic-acid reciprocal relationship but they do report that palmitic acid (16:0), stearic acid (18:0) and linoleic acid (18:2) "have the major acid components varying seasonally." Belser and Reid (1994) showed that the fatty acid trends in the diet may alter endogenous synthesis of fatty acids. Although this is not a specific effect where a particular fatty acid in the diet inhibits endogenous synthesis of the same fatty acid (Garrett, 1988), it may result in the type of palmitic-acid-chris-acid relationship discussed here.

Figures 8 to 11 also illustrate the possible influence that may have on each fatty acid concentration in a given bird on the diet. The question arises as to whether there are changes in percent composition of the fatty acids of adult birds as the seasons transition. Balonius (1981, 1988), Belser and Farmer (1994), and Rosen (1988) all reporting on migratory trends and Bent and Reng's (1980a) study on a non-migratory bird discussed the influence seasonal changes might have on adipose fatty acid composition relative to migration and breeding. Balonius, Bent and Reng, and Rosen have indicated possible seasonal changes in depot fat composition as the season progressed, whereas Belser and Farmer found no significant changes. Because the present study was done on captive birds, it is impossible to make any definitive statements regarding seasonal alterations in the fatty acid composition of depot fat in feral birds. However, by summing all saturated fatty acids (Figure 12), any changes with respect to this in each bird may be more easily seen than in Figures 8 to 11 where individual fatty acids are considered.

respectively. From the data in Figures 12, 13 can be seen that, with respect to the, no variability in advanced fatty acids is apparent which cannot be accounted for by dietary influence as in the case of the low or high unsaturated fat diet or by constant (as opposed to varying) physiologically relevant levels as in the case of the 5% oil in the standard fat diet.

The possibility has been discussed of physiologically controlled, endogenously synthesized, depot fatty acids as suggested in the fatty acid levels of the bird on the normal fat diet. Regarding this possibility of metabolic control, the Michaelis-Menten relationship between these metabolites should be observed. It has been shown that the conversion of linoleic and linolenic acid to plant leaf homologues to stearic acid (Jones, 1961), in its active form α, ω -dihydroxy- ω -stearic, further studies on leaf chloroplasts (Jarrin, Rausch and Berrios, 1967; Nagel and Black, 1969) indicated that stearic acid is derived from unsatrate. This latter reaction occurs in rat and chicken liver preparations as well (Johnson, et al., 1967).

The desaturation of oleic acid to linoleic and of linoleic acid has not been observed in avian tissue, however. Johnson, et al. (1967) discussed the effect of the cyclopropanoid steroidal acid on inhibiting the desaturation reaction from stearate to oleate. They pointed out that chickens raised on saturated oil, with native high concentrations of this inhibitor, show a substantial hardening of depot fat as the oleic:stearic decreases and stearic levels increase. In the present study, there did not appear to be any noticeable change in the texture of the buoyaged

fat free the Tidiga Bunting's depot fat throughout the growth period increased, with one exception. Changes from the birds on the high unsaturated fat diet did become noticeably softer. A second important point to be gained from Johnson, et al., relates to the fact that the fatty acid composition did not vary directly with the fatty acid levels in the diet, but with the presence of a metabolic inhibitor in the diet.

Thus, it seems that there are three possible influences between dietary fatty acids and the fatty acid composition of depot fat:

1. Depot fat composition is strictly a function of dietary composition. This has been indicated in most studies of non-migratory domestic and game birds and the short-distance migrant, *Geothlypis trichas*. This notion is supported in part by the present study and occurs when the concentration of fat in the diet is above some minimal level.
2. Dietary fat does not affect the fatty acid composition of the depot fat. This alternative was supported by Edwards in his study on chicken and bird and King in their study on the Bobolink. The present work on migratory Tidiga Bunting supports this possibility only when the dietary supplement of fat is around 1 percent of the diet.
3. Changes in metabolic status, in migratory birds under and from different periods of their annual cycle, may alter fatty acid levels to affect these. The Great Reed Warbler and the Mud Thrush showed seasonal changes in saturation and satura-

Protein content (Bartness, 1980) and TAG/TG ratio (Bartness, 1980) which both authors attributed to metabolic changes; however, it cannot be ascertained at present whether or not the drugs in question altered their effects. There is no evidence in this study to support this alternative.

4. Metabolism in the liver's diet could indirectly influence fatty acid composition. Johnson, et al. indicated the possibility in discussing the effect of the natural inhibitor, stearic acid.
5. Various combinations of the above. The possible complementarity between palmitic and oleic acid in the present study may be an example of this. If either acid is selected by the amount of total fatty acid in the diet a complementary change may be metabolically induced, also.

Since the present study seems to support points 1, 2, and 5, we tentatively conclude that dietary fatty acids can influence depot fatty acid composition if the percent of dietary fatty acid is above some as yet undetermined level. In the cattle nursing diet we used when the percentage of Pal in the diet was about 5 percent, but was not apparent at 1 percent. If the fat percent is high enough to influence fatty acid tissue levels, it is possible that altered TGs in one fatty acid may influence other fatty acid levels present through intermediary metabolism in the liver or adipose tissue. If the amount of dietary fat is below some minimal level, the depot fat may establish a physiological level without regard to the percent concentration of the fatty acids in the diet.

In order to clarify better the role dietary fatty acids have in influencing depot fatty acids, studies on the fatty acid composition and the percentage of fat in the seasonal diets of feral pigeons are essential. In telemetry controlled studies, methods for developing larger sample sizes than those which were used in the present study are equally as essential. The amount of time required for dietary fatty acids to effect changes in the depot fats should also be considered. The results of the present study indicate that this interval may be six to ten weeks in length in the Dodge hunting. Therefore, extensive observations and analyses of pre-migratory feed and depot fats will be necessary before the effects of exogenous influences in depot fatty acids can be separated from endogenous physiologically controlled fatty acid levels in migratory birds.

SUMMARY

Fatty acid analysis of triglycerides from the subarachnoid fat pad of cattle fed either 100% grain or 100% grass were presented. Mean provisatory percentages of each fatty acid for the 10 birds tested were: myristic acid (11.0), 8.81 percent; palmitic acid (16.6), 20.61 percent; stearic acid (18.0), 8.48 percent; palmitoleic acid (16.1), 8.18 percent; oleic acid (18.1), 40.45 percent; and linoleic acid (18.8), 14.65 percent.

The fatty acid composition of depot fat from four birds, each one kept on a different diet of known fat percentage and fatty acid composition were presented. Then each fatty acid in the diet was compared with the same fatty acid in the fat biopsy. The following observations could be made: myristic acid levels in the diets and the depot fats were too similar to determine any possible influence dietary myristic acid might have on depot levels.

Palmitic acid (16:0) and palmitoleic acid (16:1) levels in the bird on the unsaturated diet dropped with respect to the approaching their dietary levels. In the bird on the animal fat diet, the trend in palmitic acid levels was very close dietary levels, whereas this trend was not obvious in palmitoleic acid levels. Stearic acid levels tended to approach dietary levels in the bird on the unsaturated fat diet. The element results indicating dietary influence on depot fatty acids is seen in comparing diets and fat triglyceride acids in the bird on the

saturated fat diet. The clearest results which indicate a lack of influence of dietary fatty acids on depot levels is seen in oleic acid and linoleic acid levels in the liver on the unusual fat diet. In the livers kept on the unsaturated fat and saturated fat diets, a non-glycogen relationship seemed to exist between stearic and palmitic acid levels.

Dietary influences on depot fatty acids may occur when percentage of fat in the diet is above some critical level. Below this level, the percent of fatty acids in depot fat may be under some endogenous control.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

David Lunder was born June 17, 1939, in the Bronx, New York. He graduated from Bronx Science High School in the Bronx, June, 1956. In June, 1960, he received the degree of Bachelor of Arts with a major in chemistry from Western Reserve University. He worked as a high school Biology teacher in New York City and then as a laboratory technician at the University of Miami's Institute of Marine Sciences. In September, 1964, he entered in the graduate school at the University of Florida. In April, 1968, he received the degree of Master of Science in Teaching from the University of Florida. He worked as a graduate assistant in the Department of Biological Sciences from September, 1968, until June, 1969. From July, 1969, until September, 1970, he was a graduate assistant in the Department of Ophthalmology. From September, 1970, to the present he has been a research associate in the Department of Ophthalmology. Upon satisfactory completion of his graduate training he will begin a two-year Post-doctoral fellowship awarded to him by the National Eye Institute in the Department of Biology at the University of New Mexico School of Medicine.

David Lunder is married to Joyce Lunder and has one child, Michelle, three years old. He is the past president of the Alpha Chapter of Phi Sigma and is a member of the American Institute of Biological Sciences, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, the Audubon Society and the Association for Research in Ophthalmology.

This dissertation has gone under the direction of the chair
of the candidate's supervisory committee and has been approved by all
members of that committee. It was submitted to the Dean of the College
of Arts and Sciences and to the Graduate Council, and was approved as
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of
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